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ABSTRACT

This booklet presents information to international visitors on higher education in the United States. Section 1, "Introduction to U.S. Higher Education, Its Governance, Administration, and Accreditation," discusses: federal government and state roles; types of institutions of higher education; administrative structure; and accreditation, quality, and standards. Section 2, "Admissions, Faculty, Students, and Instruction," focuses on: academic entrance exams, admission of foreign students, transfer students, and graduate admissions; faculty qualifications, tenure, and evaluation; foreign students attending U.S. colleges and universities; and the academic year, credit system, types of courses and methods of instruction, student evaluation, and diplomas and degrees. Section 3, "Financing Higher Education," discusses: institutional income and expenditures; costs of higher education to students and their families; and financing foreign students. Section 4, "Major Issues in U.S. Higher Education," highlights: costs and funding; quality and assessment; affirmative action and access for minority students; governance; information technology and education policy; accountability; and internationalization. Section 5 features "Organizations and U.S. Government Agencies Involved in International Higher Education." (SM)

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I. AN INTRODUCTION TO U.S. HIGHER EDUCATION, ITS GOVERNANCE, ADMINISTRATION, AND ACCREDITATION

Overview

Higher education* in the United States has undergone several major changes over the last 50 years. The most prominent shift has been toward mass education. By 1997, 65 percent[1] of the population had some level of college or university education, compared with only 18 percent in 1940 and 25 percent in 1967. Consider, in contrast, the estimated net entry rates for college and university education of: Canada (49 percent); the United Kingdom (43 percent); France (33 percent); Hungary (20 percent); Thailand (14 percent)[2]; Mexico (14 percent); China (6 percent); and Senegal (3 percent).[3]

U.S. higher education is decentralized, diverse, and inclusive. At the national level is the Department of Education, but its authority and focus are limited; rather, the 50 states have primary responsibility for supervising higher education. The United States has no equivalent to the centralized national ministry of education found in many countries.

Of the 4,009 higher education institutions in the United States in 1998, 58 percent of the institutions were private; nevertheless, public institutions enroll 73 percent of college students. Doctorate-granting and research universities represent 6 per-

*Higher education in the United States refers to college and university academic study beyond the secondary level (high school). Institutions of higher education are called colleges, universities, or institutes. Postsecondary education refers to a wider range of post-high school offerings, including higher education as well as career and vocational schools.

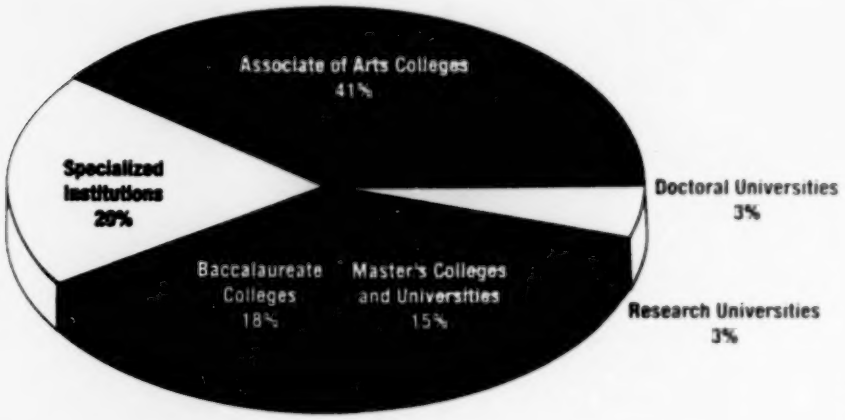
[1]U.S. Department of Education, *Condition of Education:* 1998, Indicator 22.

[2]The Boyer Commission on Educating Undergraduates in the Research University, *Reinventing Undergraduate Education: A Blueprint for America's Research Universities*, 1997, p. 5, using Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) estimates for students over 15 years.

[3]The totals for China, Mexico, and Senegal refer to tertiary enrollment of the "official age group" as defined by the government for that level. From *UNESCO Statistical Yearbook*, 1997.

Figure I

Universe of Institutions by Carnegie Classification, 1995-96 (Total n = 3,706)*



*The Carnegie Classification of Higher Education, on which this was based, was established for research purposes and has become commonly used in the United States.

Research universities offer a full range of baccalaureate programs, as well as graduate education through the doctorate. They give high priority to research.

Doctoral universities offer a full range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the doctorate.

Master's (comprehensive) colleges and universities offer a full range of baccalaureate programs and are committed to graduate education through the master's degree.

Baccalaureate colleges are primarily undergraduate colleges with major emphasis on bachelor's degree programs. They include liberal arts colleges.

Associate of arts colleges include community, junior, and technical colleges. With few exceptions, they offer no bachelor's degrees.

Specialized institutions offer degrees ranging from the baccalaureate to the doctorate, at least half of which are in a single discipline. Specialized institutions include, among others, teachers' colleges, theological seminaries, and schools of medicine, law, engineering, business, art, and music.*

*Adapted from The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, A Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 1994.

cent of all institutions but enroll 27 percent of the student population. Specialized institutions that award credentials in specific fields (such as electronics and cosmetology) represent approximately 20 percent of all institutions but enroll only 3 percent of the student population. As Figure 1 shows, the largest percentage of institutions (41 percent) comprises two-year colleges, which award associate degrees and offer certificate programs. Four-year baccalaureate colleges account for 18 percent of all higher education institutions in the United States.

Postsecondary education institutions in the United States enrolled more than 14 million students in 1996.[4] In addition to the significant increase in participation rates over the past 50 years, the nature of the student body also has changed dramatically. Fewer than 25 percent of today's students are "traditional" students: between 18 and 22 years old, single, financially dependent on parents, resident at the college, and attending school full time. At many institutions (other than highly selective colleges and universities), more than half the students are over the age of 25, working, and attending school part time.

U.S. higher education is a $185 billion enterprise that consumes about 3 percent of Gross Domestic Product. It employs about 2 percent of the U.S. workforce; approximately one-third of higher education employees are teaching faculty. Seven out of ten students receive some form of financial aid. Financial aid covers about 40 percent of the budget for full-time students.[5] In 1997-98, $60 billion in aid was awarded; 73 percent was in the form of loans and grants from the federal government.[6] Most students work part time to help cover the costs of their education.

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[4]Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, July 1997.

[5]Source: ACE, *College Is Possible*, October 1998.

[6]*The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac*, August 27, 1999, Vol. XLVI, No. 1, p. 21.

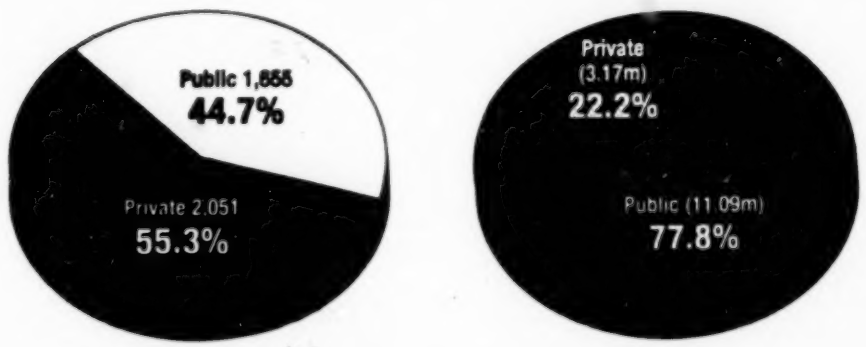
In the United States, state governments grant licenses to higher education institutions, but accreditation, which recognizes academic legitimacy, is a non-governmental, voluntary process carried out by nonprofit associations. (See the later description of this process.)

Governing authorities and funding sources vary according to institutional type. Private institutions have independent governing boards and rely heavily on tuition fees. They do not receive general subsidies from the federal or state government, although accredited institutions have access to state and federal research, scholarship, and loan funds. Private institutions are of two types: nonprofit (some of which are affiliated with religious groups) and proprietary (profit making). In this guide, "private institution" refers to a nonprofit institution unless specifically stated otherwise.

Public institutions are governed by boards of regents or trustees whose authority is delegated by state–or, in some cases, such as community colleges, county or city–governments. Traditionally, their largest single source of revenue has been state (or county or city) tax funds, although in recent years, some state governments have reduced their financial contributions to the point where they contribute less than one-quarter of the revenue of the public institutions.

Figure 2

Numbers of, Compared with Enrollments in, Public and Private Institutions



The Role of the Federal Government and the U.S. Department of Education

The federal government does not exercise central control of higher education, as the governments of most other nations do through their ministries of education. (The exceptions in the United States are several federal institutions, including Howard University, the military academies, and 29 tribal colleges.) Instead, each state is responsible for most aspects of education within its borders. Authority over private colleges and universities generally is very limited.

The U.S. Department of Education is involved in the regulation of education in a limited way. Its primary areas of concern are: (1) the responsible use of federal funds granted to higher education institutions through contracts or grants and to students attending those institutions; (2) the implementation of legislation, such as the Civil Rights Act, which involves higher education; (3) programs designed to encourage particular types of curriculum development, such as foreign language training and area studies programs; (4) special programs designed to help make higher education opportunities available to people with disabilities; and (5) federal funds for research in a wide range of areas, including health, science, international studies, space, and the environment.

The Role of the States

Most higher education institutions are either established by the state (public colleges and universities) or receive their charters from them (most private institutions). State governments possess legal authority to regulate and approve their continued operations, even though independent non-governmental bodies carry out the accreditation. The state departments of education, state boards of higher education, and, in some cases, state universities or special state commissions share responsibility for state institutions. Private colleges and universities have their own governing boards but are subject to state laws governing nonprofit and for-profit organizations.

It is important to emphasize that state licensing does not imply accreditation. In fact, some state-licensed "colleges" or "universities" are not legitimate education institutions at all, but rather "diploma mills"– business operations that issue bogus degrees.

Types of Institutions of Higher Education in the United States

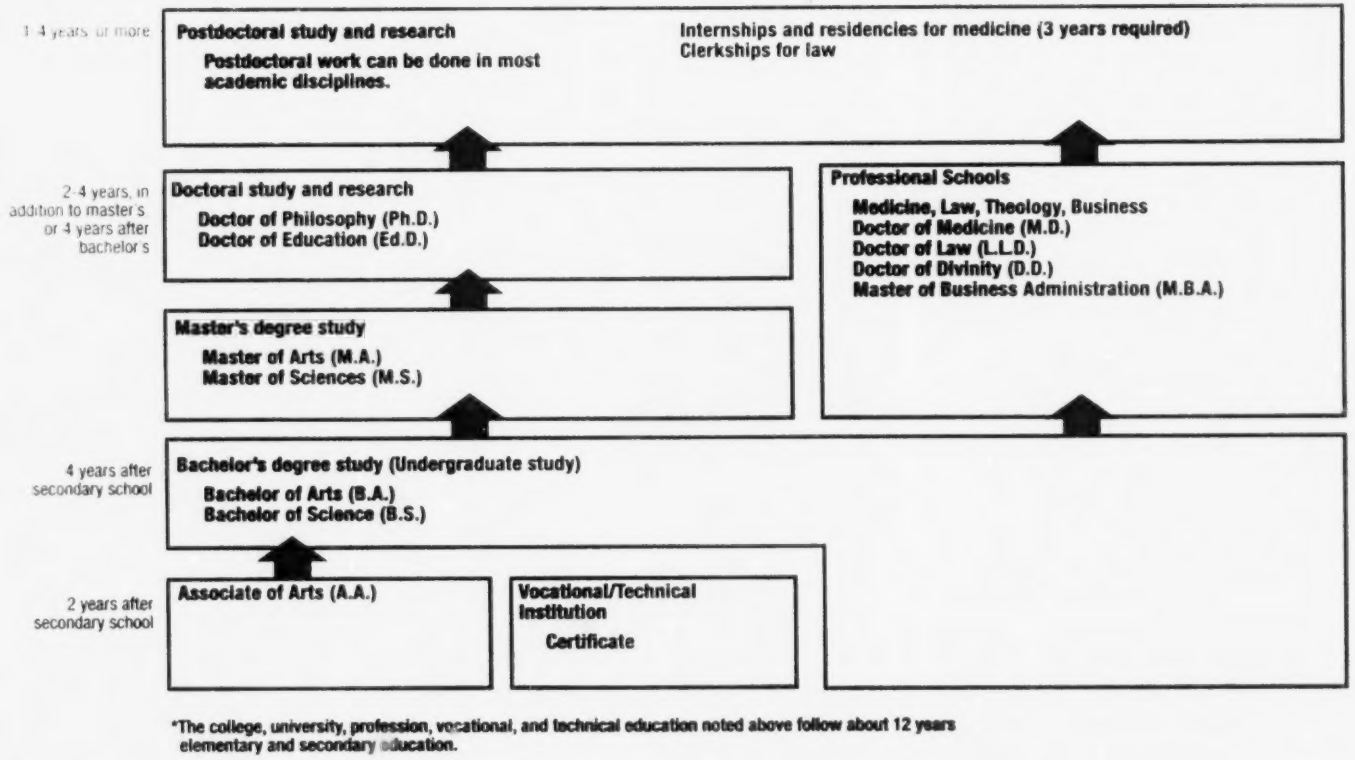
Postsecondary education institutions in the United States generally are of three broad types, each of which includes both public and private institutions: (1) two-year colleges, usually called community, junior, or technical colleges; (2) four-year colleges, which usually offer either four years of general undergraduate education (liberal arts) or a combination of general and preprofessional education; and (3) comprehensive universities, which offer both undergraduate and graduate education as well as professional degrees. Institutional titles can be confusing, however, because states have different regulations and traditions. For example, many institutions called "universities" do not offer degrees beyond the master's degree; some offer no degrees beyond the bachelor's degree. Some "colleges" offer doctorates. A few prestigious degree-granting institutions in the country are known as "institutes" (for example, California Institute of Technology and Massachusetts Institute of Technology). In addition, there are institutions called colleges, institutes, or universities that are not accredited but that offer degrees and certificates.

The Two-Year or Community, Technical, or Junior College

There are approximately 1,742 community, technical, and junior colleges in the United States, of which 654 are private. Although technical colleges historically focused on subjects related to technology, many now offer a broad range of courses in the arts and social sciences. For practical purposes, the terms "community," "technical," and "junior" are interchangeable. A community college, as its name implies, serves a region or county. Community colleges offer four distinct types of programs.

Figure 3

The Structure of Education in the United States


1-4 years or more
Postdoctoral study and research
Postdoctoral work can be done in most academic disciplines.
Internships and residencies for medicine (3 years required)
Clerkships for law
2-4 years, in addition to master's or 4 years after bachelor's
Doctoral study and research
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)
Doctor of Education (Ed.D.)
Professional Schools
Medicine, Law, Theology, Business
Doctor of Medicine (M.D.)
Doctor of Law (L.L.D.)
Doctor of Divinity (D.D.)
Master of Business Administration (M.B.A.)
Master's degree study
Master of Arts (M.A.)
Master of Sciences (M.S.)
4 years after secondary school
Bachelor's degree study (Undergraduate study)
Bachelor of Arts (B.A.)
Bachelor of Science (B.S.)
2 years after secondary school
Associate of Arts (A.A.)
Vocational/Technical Institution
Certificate

*The college, university, profession, vocational, and technical education noted above follow about 12 years elementary and secondary education.

NOTE: Adult education programs, while not separately delineated above, may provide instruction at the elementary, secondary, or higher education level.

Transfer Programs

Students may complete the first two years of a liberal arts or preprofessional program such as medicine, business, law, or engineering and then transfer to a four-year college or university to complete a baccalaureate degree.

Development or Remediation Programs

Many students require programs designed to improve their skills (for example, in reading or math) to enable them to pursue college-level studies to perform acceptably in an occupation. Many students in remediation programs have been away from the classroom for years and require renewal of basic skills and a transition period to accustom them to college-level work. A significant number of students are not native speakers of English and need instruction in English as a Second Language. These programs usually are non-credit bearing.

Continuing and Adult Education Programs

These generally are non-credit programs that focus on vocational needs or on civic, cultural, or recreational interests.

Occupational/Technical Programs

Approximately 60 percent of two-year college students are enrolled in certificate or degree programs that help them find employment, update work skills, and facilitate career changes. Such programs are vital for a workforce whose skills become outdated or redundant within two to three years.

The Four-Year Undergraduate College or University

The four-year undergraduate college is the nucleus from which all institutions of higher learning in the United States have developed. Undergraduates usually are admitted to the institution, not to a department or program, and choose their major academic field after one or two years of general education. Students' courses are in the fields of the humanities, social sciences, physical sciences, and biological sciences. Students must demonstrate study in all four areas on the assumption that such broad exposure will make them better qualified and more effective engineers, historians, doctors, economists, etc. The students' last two years are devoted to more specialized study in their chosen major field.

The University

A university is made up of a group of schools or faculties, and usually includes several undergraduate colleges (such as arts and sciences, or professional programs such as engineering or business), graduate schools (which sometimes are part of a single school combined with undergraduate programs), and professional (post-baccalaureate) schools. The undergraduate curriculum usually includes two years of liberal arts study and two years of intense concentration in a major area.

Some technological and professional programs, such as agriculture, business administration, engineering, nursing, and teaching, are offered at both undergraduate and graduate levels. Other professions, such as medicine, dentistry, and law, are studied only at the graduate level (with preparatory programs available at the undergraduate level). In addition to bachelor's degrees, universities also offer master's degrees, and most offer doctorates. Research universities are those with a major emphasis on research and graduate education at the doctoral level. (Refer to Figures 1 and 3 for clarification of these types of institutions.)

Administrative Structure in Higher Education Institutions

The organizational structure of a college or university reflects the institution's size, philosophy, and objectives and usually is influenced by the relative priorities placed on teaching, research, and public service.

Colleges and universities have multiple levels of administration, each with specific functions. The following diagram depicts these levels and their interrelations. At most institutions, the hierarchy is not as clear-cut as illustrated here. Much of the authority is shared–hence the term "shared governance."

The Board

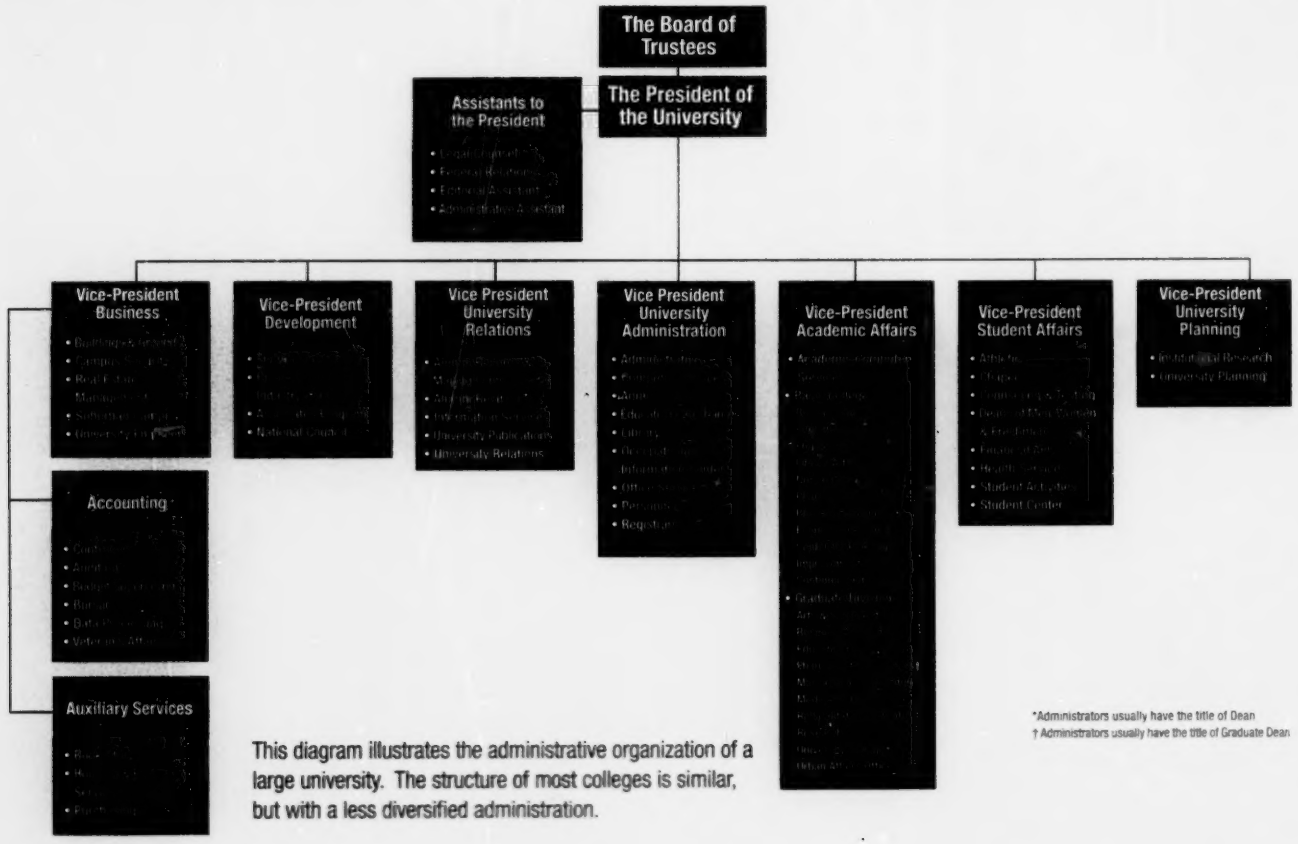
In the area of administration, higher education institutions in the United States have many similarities. In all cases, the highest level of administration is the governing or policy-making body. This body may be called a board of regents, board of trustees, or board of governors. Members of public boards may be appointed by the governor, elected by voters, or chosen by the groups they represent (such as alumni). Boards of private institutions often are "self-perpetuating"; the board members themselves select new members as others' terms expire. In most cases, some constituencies (such as alumni) elect their own representatives. Governing boards are responsible for creating general, fiscal, and academic policy to ensure their institutions' effective and efficient operation. While boards typically are an institution's highest authority, they share power and responsibility with the president, senate, and other bodies. For example, in academic areas, primary authority usually resides with the faculty, often represented by the senate and committees. Nevertheless, many academic issues require final approval by the board.

The Chief Executive Officer (President or Chancellor)

The chief executive officer oversees the day-to-day operation of the institution; ensures that the policies of the governing board are implemented; and facilitates the academic program of the institution by working with various stakeholders, such as students and faculty. An increasingly important expectation of the president is fundraising. The president also is the liaison between the board and the college or university community. He or she may also make policy recommendations to the governing board on behalf of the academic community. At most institutions, the president is selected by and reports directly to the board. In multi-campus systems, the campus head usually reports to a system head.

Figure 4

The University: Administrative Organization



This diagram illustrates the administrative organization of a large university. The structure of most colleges is similar, but with a less diversified administration.

Vice Presidents and Deans

Academic Vice President or Dean

The academic vice president–sometimes called the provost, the dean of the college, or the dean of the faculty–is the chief academic officer of a college or university. He or she reviews or approves individual faculty appointments, appoints and supervises the academic administrative officers, reviews and approves administrative policies in all educational areas, and assists department chairs in evaluating and advising faculty members. The academic vice president works closely with the faculty on academic matters and is responsible for curriculum development. Most institutions have several other vice chancellors for such areas as finance, planning, or student affairs, depending on their size and structure (see Figure 4).

Graduate Dean

The chief graduate school officer (often called vice president or dean for graduate studies and research) has institution-wide responsibilities for graduate programs and research carried out in conjunction with institutional activities. Included within these responsibilities are program evaluation, program initiation and termination, supervision of graduate faculty, and research administration. Depending on the size of the institution and the degree of centralization of administrative efforts, these responsibilities may be carried out by the vice president or dean or coordinated among a variety of semi-autonomous, discipline-based units. The chief graduate school research officer also is responsible for coordinating the university's research efforts involving federal, state, and private industry funding.

Dean of Students

In undergraduate life, experiences outside the classroom make an important contribution to student learning. Sometimes referred to as the "co-curriculum," campus life programs and events include clubs, speaker series, student newspapers, and theater. Deans of students or vice presidents of student affairs oversee these activities, as well as residence halls and student conduct issues.

Department Chairs

The basic unit of academic organization in most institutions is the department (e.g., chemistry, political science). The department chair is concerned with the administration of instruction; represents the department's academic, financial,

and personnel interests; and initiates searches for new faculty members. The chair serves as liaison between the dean of a school or college (in a large unit) or the chief academic officer and the department members. Among the chair's chief responsibilities, with other tenured members of the department, are faculty recruitment, evaluations for reappointment, and salary increases. The chair works with the registrar to address the department's classroom needs, serves as liaison with other units, develops relationships with students majoring in the department, and addresses teaching problems within the department. Chairs may be elected by the members of the academic department or named by the administration, or some combination of the two.

Other Administrators

Other appointments are made for deans or directors, according to the institution's size. These individuals are responsible for such areas as graduate programs, institutional budget and business affairs, student admissions, financial aid, residence hall supervision, foreign student advising, and other academic and non-academic activities.

Registrar

The registrar is the principal student record-keeping officer of the institution. The office of the registrar organizes student course enrollment, enforces academic requirements for degrees, certifies students for academic honors, requests grades from faculty members, keeps records of student grades, notifies the advising office of academic deficiencies, and notifies appropriate officers or committees of students who do not meet the institution's minimum standards. The office prepares directories of registered students; schedules and enforces deadlines; determines class hours, classrooms, and final examination schedules; and considers requests for changes in any of these.

Chief Development Officer

This position is sometimes referred to as vice president for development (or community and external relations) or director of development. Primary duties include fundraising, publicity, alumni relations, and records.

Government Relations Officer

A government relations officer–especially at a public institution–is responsible for serving as a liaison with state and federal governments. This office frequently is headed by a vice president for external affairs. Duties include legislative affairs, public relations, and communicating with state and national agencies.

The Faculty and the Senate

The faculty is an important part of the shared governance structure of higher education. While the powers of the faculty vary from one institution to another, faculty members generally have primary responsibility for the institution's curriculum and research and often are involved in such areas as finance, student discipline, and strategic planning. In most cases, the faculty exercises its authority through an elected senate and committees. At some smaller institutions, the faculty meets collectively to make decisions regarding curriculum, research direction, and other issues. While the senate usually has primary responsibility for the curriculum and research, its decisions almost always are subject to review by the president and governing board.

At most institutions, academic functions are handled separately from financial and operations management. The latter are much more hierarchical, representing at least a division of labor (especially at research universities), if not a clear demarcation of authority. At some institutions, both administrative and academic functions operate according to a strict hierarchy in which the board and the president are at the top and faculty authority is limited. At institutions in which the faculty is unionized, management functions are very clearly differentiated from teaching, research, and service.

Accreditation, Quality, and Standards

Two core values shape the quality assurance process: the importance of quality and high standards and institutional autonomy. In that context, the accreditation process has developed around voluntary, non-governmental, self-regulatory structures. The U.S. Department of Education is not responsible for accreditation, quality control, or standards, as ministries in many other countries are.

There are two basic types of accreditation: institutional and specialized. Institutional accreditation provides recognition for an institution as a whole, while specialized accreditation recognizes a program or unit within an institution. Specialized accreditation is most common in professions such as law, social work, and journalism.

The accreditation process ensures that colleges and universities maintain academic standards, are adequately managed, and are eligible to participate in certain federal programs. Accreditation associations, guided by a set of expectations about quality and integrity, send teams of administrators and faculty members from other institutions for a site visit. Often, professionals from the subject area being reviewed also participate. The accreditors then make judgments and communicate decisions to the institution. If a program or institution falls below established standards, it is given notice that it could lose accreditation if standards are not achieved within a reasonable, set period of time. The accreditation process is coordinated, and to some extent overseen, by the Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA), described below.

Institutional Accrediting

Institutional accreditation is granted by the regional and national accrediting commissions of schools and colleges, which collectively serve most of the institutions chartered or licensed in the United States. Although accreditation generally is granted for a specific term, usually ten years, accrediting bodies reserve the right to review member institutions or programs at any time.

Institutional accreditation, though voluntary, is necessary for a college's survival. It is a primary consideration of parents, prospective students, and counselors in choosing an institution; loss of accreditation, or threat of loss, would adversely affect student enrollment. It would destroy the institution's ability to recruit good faculty. Institutions must be accredited to receive federal funds, and it is almost always a prerequisite for funding from foundations. Graduation from an accredited institution generally is a minimum requirement for admission to graduate school. Employers seldom recognize credentials obtained from a non-accredited institution.

Specialized Accreditation

Specialized accreditation of professional and occupational schools and programs is granted by commissions set up by national professional organizations in such fields as business, medicine, engineering, and law to provide assurances of educational preparation. Each of these groups has a distinctive definition of eligibility, criteria for accreditation, and operating procedures. Many consider requests for accreditation reviews only from programs affiliated with colleges holding institutional accreditation. However, some specialized agencies accredit professional programs at independent institutions that offer only the particular discipline or course of study. Because this accreditation often is used by state licensing authorities, graduation from an accredited program is essential for most students seeking licensure as practicing architects, dentists, engineers, lawyers, physicians, nurses, or other professionals.

Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA)

The Council for Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA) helps preserve the independence and autonomy of the accreditation process. CHEA is a national membership organization of colleges and universities, regional accreditation associations, higher education commissions, and specialized groups that accredit specific disciplines and professions. It focuses on the process and quality of accreditation, con-

stantly reevaluating and re-setting expectations for recognition of accrediting organizations and recognizing those which meet its expectations. It coordinates research, analysis, and debate; collects and disseminates information about good practices in accreditation and quality assurance; and mediates disputes between higher education institutions and accreditors.

For a list of accredited institutions, consult *Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education,* published annually by the American Council on Education and available abroad at U.S. Department of State-affiliated Educational Advising Centers (formerly known as U.S. Information Agency-affiliated Educational Advising Centers).

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II. ADMISSIONS, FACULTY, STUDENTS, AND INSTRUCTION

Admissions

Admission criteria vary widely by type of institution. Higher education institutions establish admissions policies that are consistent with their missions. At most institutions, admission is competitive, based on students' grades, test scores, letters of recommendation, language proficiency (for foreign students), community and leadership activities, and often an application essay. Institutions with selective admissions processes often require applications up to one year in advance of the enrollment period and delay decisions until the entire applicant group can be evaluated. They place varying degrees of importance on grades, examinations, and other factors. Because little financial aid is available for foreign students, most institutions require proof of ability to pay for tuition, lodging, and other costs at the time of application.[8]

Most community colleges and a few colleges and universities have "open door" or non-restricted admissions. These institutions normally admit students soon after their applications are received, keep admissions open until classes begin, and admit all secondary school graduates without regard to previous grades or test results. "Open door" admissions usually do not apply to foreign students.

Admission to a college or university does not necessarily guarantee admission to a specialized program or major within the institution. For example, admission to an accredited nursing program usually is based not only on the admissions criteria of the institution, but also on satisfactory scores in the pre-nursing examination designed by the National League of Nursing. In the case of the fine arts (art, music, and theater), applicants typically are asked to demonstrate their talents through presentation of a

[8]Marjorie Peace Lenn, ed., *Diversity, Accessibility, and Quality: An Introduction to Education in the United States for Educators from Other Countries*. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1995, pp. 20-22.

portfolio of their artistic works (or performance audition in music or theater). Science and engineering programs often require that the applicant have higher standardized test scores in mathematics than are required for general admission to the institution.

Academic Entrance Exams

Many colleges and universities, as well as scholarship sponsors, require applicants to take entrance examinations. These provide a common measure for comparison and sometimes aid in the evaluation of academic potential.

Most first-year undergraduate applicants are required to take one or more of the tests sponsored by either the College Entrance Examination Board or the American College Testing Program. The tests are described below:

The Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) of the College Board is a multiple-choice test that measures verbal and mathematical abilities. The 30-minute Test of Standard Written English (TSWE) is administered with the SAT. One or more additional one-hour SAT II exams also may be required in such subjects as chemistry, mathematics, history, and certain foreign languages. (Further information can be found at The College Board website: www.collegeboard.org.)

The American College Testing Program (ACT) offers the ACT Assessment, an entrance examination comparable to the SAT. The ACT Assessment consists of four tests: English, mathematics, reading, and science reasoning. (For more information, see www.act.org.)

Most academic graduate departments establish their own entrance requirements, including admission tests, and must be contacted directly to find out which tests are required. This is particularly true for graduate students seeking admission to programs in mathematics, history, engineering, physics, and chemistry, where some departments within an institution require one or more of the Graduate Record Examinations (described below), while others do not.

The Graduate Record Examinations (GREs) are administered by the Educational Testing Service for the Graduate Record Examinations Board. The half-day long GRE General Test is designed to measure verbal, quantitative, and analytical abili-

ties. The three-hour Subject Tests are designed to measure knowledge and understanding of subject matter related to specific fields. The graduate department to which the student is applying usually evaluates the student's GRE scores. (For more information, visit www.gre.org/ or contact the Educational Testing Service, CN 6000, Princeton, New Jersey 08541.)

The test requirements for students seeking entrance to certain professional degree programs, such as law or medicine, are more specific. Law school applicants must take the Law School Admission Test (LSAT), and medical school applicants must take the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT). To obtain further information about these tests, write to Law School Admission Services, PO Box 40, Newtown, Pennsylvania 18940 (www.lsas.org/) or to the Association of American Medical Colleges, MCAT Program, 2450 N Street, NW, Washington, DC 20037 (www.aamc.org/stuapps/admiss/mcat/start.htm).

Applicants whose native language is not English are required to submit results of an examination of their English language ability. Most U.S. colleges require the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL; see www.toefl.org/edtstprog.html). Among other examinations that some institutions require are the University of Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB) and the tests of the American Language Institute of Georgetown University (ALIGU).

Many U.S. colleges and universities also require scores on additional examinations for admission. Application instructions indicate which (if any) of the several examinations are required and how to arrange to take them.

Admission of Foreign Students

Colleges and universities in the United States differ in their admission procedures and requirements for foreign students.

A potential foreign student should begin the application process at least one year prior to the deadline in order to obtain all academic records and to arrange to take required tests. Deadlines may be as early as October 1 or as late as June 1 preceding the August in which the student would like to enroll.

Very few institutions provide financial assistance for foreign students during their first year of study in the United States. In the second year, opportunities for support increase. Foreign students seeking admission to an institution need to check its immigration and English language requirements in addition to those listed above.

Information regarding educational equivalencies for foreign students is provided through publications of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO), One Dupont Circle, NW, Washington, DC 20036 (www.aacrao.com/international/index.html). A list of private credentialing agencies also is available from AACRAO.

Transfer Students

The number of students who transfer from any given institution to another is very high. This reflects both the high rate of mobility of U.S. citizens in general and the ease of articulation between institutions.

Graduate Admissions

Graduate and undergraduate admissions differ in several important ways. Individual degree programs typically control their own graduate admissions. The process of graduate admission is more complex than the undergraduate process. Undergraduate grades, test scores on one or more standardized examinations (GRE, MCAT, LSAT, and subject area tests), and recommendations from undergraduate departments are the primary elements of the application. Completed financial aid forms also may be required at the same time as admissions applications. Offers of financial aid (teaching assistantships, research assistantships, fellowships, or tuition waivers) often are part of the admissions procedure and require additional information and decision-making time.

Faculty

Qualifications and Appointments

A Ph.D. typically is a prerequisite for faculty positions at preeminent colleges and universities. Exceptions often are made for creative artists and distinguished individuals from the professions or public life. For some institutions–especially community colleges–a master's degree may be sufficient.

Faculty appointments, renewal (and non-renewal) of contracts, and advancement in rank usually are based on the recommendation of tenured department members. Those decisions often are reviewed by a faculty committee of a college or division (such as social science, humanities, medicine), then reviewed by a university-wide committee, and finally forwarded to the appropriate executive officer. Final approval of these decisions varies by institutional type, traditions, and, often, size. Many institutions may require approval from the dean of the appropriate college or school. Others may refer such decisions to the governing board through their chief executive officer, president, or chancellor. Initial rank is conferred at the time of appointment on the basis of qualifications, experience, teaching record, service, research, and publications.

Faculty members are ranked according to their performance, credentials, and years of service to the college or university. Generally, individuals are reviewed annually by the appointing department for salary adjustments and, after three to five years, for tenure (discussed below). The annual review takes into account the year's record of teaching, service, and research; the actual criteria depend on the institution's mission.

The most commonly used faculty titles are instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, professor, and professor emeritus. Lecturer, adjunct professor, and professor emeritus are not considered "ranks" because they are not subject to the ordinary requirements for advancement or promotion.

Lecturer

A lecturer usually is a part-time faculty member who is appointed for a limited term in a specific discipline. The title "visiting professor" is akin to "lecturer" and usually applies to a scholar of some experience and status who joins the faculty of a college or university for a limited time.

Adjunct Professor

This title usually designates a part-time faculty member. Occasionally it is given to a visiting professor, especially from a foreign university, who is serving on the faculty for a limited time, usually a semester or a year.

Instructor

"Instructor" usually is the starting rank for either a full-time, "tenure-track" faculty member without a Ph.D. or a person without a Ph.D. on a contract or term appointment. Time spent as an instructor usually is considered part of the probationary period required for tenure consideration. At most institutions, six years is the maximum amount of probation time allowed for promotion to a tenured rank. Instructors usually receive one-year, annually renewable contracts. In most cases, instructors are promoted to assistant professor upon completion of a Ph.D. At many colleges and universities, an instructor's contract is not renewed if he or she is not promoted after the probationary period.

Assistant Professor

A candidate with an earned doctoral degree but no teaching experience in higher education may be appointed to the faculty at the level of assistant professor. According to the guidelines of the American Association of University Professors, a national organization that deals with academic issues and whose recommendations are followed by most institutions, an assistant professor usually is given a three-year contract for a probationary period; the contract may be renewed annually, usually for up to six years.

Associate Professor

After serving for a specified period (usually five to seven years) as assistant professor, the faculty member who has all the other qualifications (an earned doctorate, favorable annual teaching evaluations, evidence of contributions to the discipline, a record of service) may be recommended for promotion to the rank of associate professor. Consideration for tenure usually comes at the same time. At most four-year and research universities, an individual may serve as assistant professor for no more than six to eight years. If the individual is denied tenure, he or she must seek other employment.

After serving another five to six years as associate professor, the faculty member may be recommended for promotion to the rank of professor. There is no limit to the number of years an individual may serve as associate professor (one may retire as an associate professor); nor does the denial of promotion imply that employment will be terminated (provided the individual has tenure). In recent years, some institutions have required that all tenured faculty members be reviewed once every five to ten years, in addition to the annual salary review. This periodic, comprehensive review can lead to termination if performance is unsatisfactory.

Professor

Professor is the highest academic rank awarded to an individual. The professorship is not based solely on serving the required number of years in the preliminary ranks. Rather, it is bestowed by the college or university on a person whose teaching, scholarship, and service have had a significant impact on the development of the institution and the discipline.

Professor Emeritus

"Professor Emeritus" is an honorary title conferred upon an individual for long and distinguished service to the institution. It usually is awarded at the end of a faculty member's full-time service or at retirement.

Tenure

The tenure system is designed to ensure academic freedom and to provide sufficient economic security to encourage men and women of ability to choose academic careers. It is an arrangement under which faculty members are given "permanent" appointments following a probationary period. At least 60 percent of current college and university faculty members have tenure. They can be dismissed only "for cause," through procedures providing for academic due process, or on the basis of an institution's financial exigency or change of program.

During the past decade, economic problems and declining enrollments have led some institutions to reconsider the value of tenure; tenure also has been attacked as guaranteeing mediocrity. Some academic leaders, accrediting agencies, and citizens worry that continuing to employ a large percentage of tenured faculty will preclude creative young teachers and scholars from joining academe; this possibility became even more likely when mandatory retirement for faculty was made illegal in 1994. Graduate students are unlikely to prepare for careers in higher education if few faculty positions are available.

Some institutions have set limits on the number of tenured or senior faculty positions and grant tenure only when attrition results in a vacancy. A few have experimented with alternatives to tenure. Some use a two-track hiring plan according to which a faculty member may be appointed to a tenure-track or a non-tenure track position. Some have replaced tenure with a multi-year contract or offer a choice between the two. A few offer faculty members a choice between tenure and an attractive opportunity, such as teaching overseas every four years.

Faculty Evaluation

Ordinarily, all faculty members are evaluated annually by their students, their peers, and the administration. Weighted according to the institution's priorities, the evaluation assesses the quality of the faculty member's teaching and research, service to the institution, and contributions to the local and national community. The evaluation process varies among institutions. Teaching evaluations usually are based on a questionnaire. Peer evaluations involve review of the individual's professional activities over the previous year, assessment of their long-term impact, observation of their teaching, and expectations about future contributions.

Evaluations can play a part in any or all of the following: salary increases, contract renewal, promotion, tenure, the awarding of institutional honors, and appointment to certain standing committees. At several large universities, student evaluations of individual courses are published and made available through the campus bookstore or newspaper.

Students

College and university education in the United States is much more accessible today than it was prior to the 1950s. Approximately 65 percent of the population obtains some higher education.

After World War II, Congress passed the GI Bill, which subsidized higher education for returning veterans and opened the door for further legislation aimed at providing financial assistance to any qualified student who wanted a college degree. Grants, loans, and other financial aid are provided by the federal and state governments, as well as other independent agencies. The majority of American students entering college apply for and receive some form of financial assistance in the form of loans, grants, and work opportunities. More than $60 billion in federal funding is allocated for higher education student aid;[9] additional funding is available through individual colleges and universities, foundations, state governments, and other sources.

As a result of expanded access, the demographic profile of college and university students has changed dramatically. The student population now includes the economically disadvantaged as well as the affluent; women now outnumber men (women account for 56 percent of enrollments); and U.S. minorities are increasingly represented (23 percent of all college students), although still not in proportion to their numbers in the population. The number of foreign students attending colleges and universities in the United States continues to grow (almost 500,000 in 1997).

[9] *Trends in Student Aid, 1998*. The College Board.

"Traditional" undergraduates (between 18 and 22 years old) made up only 42 percent of the total postsecondary enrollment in 1977. This change is the result of many factors. Some students do not enter college directly following secondary school but wait several years, usually working in the interim; other students take a break from their studies in order to join the workforce but may return to complete their degree requirements when they are older. Perhaps the most significant factor is the increasing number of adults returning to college. Older students now account for 41 percent of college enrollments. The median age of college students in the United States is now over 30 years old. Today's "typical" college student may represent any economic, cultural, or age group, from young adult to senior citizen, though minorities and economically disadvantaged students remain underrepresented.

Overview of Foreign Students Attending U.S. Colleges and Universities

In 1997-98, 481,280 foreign students were enrolled at the college or university level in the United States. They came from 196 countries and territories around the world. The majority of foreign students come from Japan, China, the Republic of Korea, India, Taiwan, and Canada.

Roughly two-thirds (67.9 percent) of foreign students' funding came from personal and family sources. More than three-quarters (79 percent) received their primary funding from sources outside the United States, with home governments subsidizing 5.9 percent of all foreign students. U.S. colleges and universities were the most significant source of funds inside the United States, providing funding to 18 percent of foreign students. The U.S. government funded only 0.8 percent.[10]

[10]Statistics are from Todd Davis, ed., *Open Doors*, 1997/98. New York: Institute of International Education, 1998.

Instruction

The Academic Year

The academic year ranges in length from 32 to 36 weeks. It usually begins in late August or early September and ends in early or late May. Most colleges and universities divide the September to May academic year into two semesters. Others divide the entire year into four periods of 12 weeks each, called quarters (one "free" week separates each of the quarters); the three quarters that fall between September and May are regarded as a normal academic year, and the fourth quarter is a summer session. A few institutions divide the entire year into three equal trimesters. At most colleges and universities, a two- to three-week holiday begins in mid-December and continues into January. Most also have a two- to three-day holiday in November for Thanksgiving and a one-week spring holiday in March or April.

Colleges and universities on the semester system vary in their scheduling of summer sessions. Although courses held during a summer session usually have the same number of class hours as those held during the spring and fall semesters, they are more concentrated. The number of weeks in a summer session typically varies from three to eight.

The Credit System

A student's rate of advancement in meeting curriculum requirements is measured in course credits. These often are referred to as credit hours, semester hours (in the semester system), or quarter hours (in the quarter system). One class "hour" a week (usually a 50-minute period) for a semester or quarter is valued at one unit or credit. Thus, the typical three-period class (meeting three "hours" a week for a semester or quarter) is rated as three units or credits. Two or three laboratory periods are usually considered equal to one class "hour." For undergraduate students, the normal program (or "academic load") is between 15 and 17 units a semester or quarter; for graduate students, it is between nine and 12 units.

Types of Courses and Methods of Instruction

Courses are usually one semester or quarter in duration. A course "belongs" to the department or school in which it is offered. In general, new courses must be approved beyond the department level by a faculty body designated for that purpose. While the general course content and academic level must fall within the guidelines of the offering department, individual faculty members have a great deal of freedom in deciding how a course is taught. They choose which textbooks will be used and determine the syllabus. At institutions where introductory courses are taught to large numbers of students by different faculty members or on several different campuses, groups of faculty decide jointly what material will be covered, prepare the syllabus, and determine which readings will be assigned.

The lecture method, in which an instructor relates course material to a silent, note-taking group of students for the entire class session, is used less and less frequently. More common is a lecture-discussion style, supplemented with video and other media presentations, with frequent opportunities for students to ask questions. Faculty often assign discussion topics so that lecturing is reduced to a minimum. At large universities, where lower-division undergraduate classes (those offered during a student's first two years) tend to have high enrollments, students may meet for part of the assigned time with the "lecturer" and then break up into small groups for discussions led by a graduate student teaching assistant.

The seminar method, in which material is studied in greater depth, is used extensively at the graduate level. It usually is employed in upper-division undergraduate courses, although a few colleges and universities now try to provide beginning students with one "freshman seminar," limited to 15 to 20 people. Students usually are required to write and to conduct research, and some of the discussion time is devoted to analysis of student and scholarly theory and opinion.

Developments in technology are changing the ways in which students and teachers relate. Different programs make it possible for students to control the pace of learning by working independently. Depending upon the program and how technology is used, teachers can be either more distant from or more readily available to each student. The teacher can become more of a guide to students seeking to make the best use of the information available and less a "dispenser" of facts.

Some courses include practical training in which instruction or supervision is given to a student outside the college or university during an apprenticeship-like period. This type of instruction includes clinical practice for those in the health or allied health fields, in-service experience for those in education or social work, and other on-the-job pre-employment experiences. Some colleges and universities require periods of practical work (often called cooperative education) as part of the regular curriculum.

Assessment of Student Work

The faculty at most U.S. colleges and universities grade students' academic work on a scale from "A" to "F," with "A" considered superior and "F" indicating failure. Undergraduate students are expected to maintain a "C" average or better to remain in good academic standing. Graduate students are expected to maintain a "B" average or better.

Some institutions also make use of a pass-fail system: Students who complete a course satisfactorily receive a grade of "pass"; students who do not receive a "fail." Some institutions use the pass-fail system for elective (but not required) courses. A few institutions give written evaluations of student work rather than grades.

The U.S. system involves no national examinations but rather is a process of continuous assessment based on a series of specific courses. Academic achievement is measured by grade points. In accordance with the common four-point scale, each credit with a grade of "A" earns four "grade" or "quality" points; "B+" earns 3.5 points, "B" earns 3, "C" earns 2, and "D" earns 1. A student's grade point average (GPA) or, as it is sometimes called, quality point average (QPA), is a computation of overall performance in all courses. In a few states, students must pass statewide examinations in order to proceed from their second to third year of study. Some institutions require students to take a comprehensive examination in the major at the end of their senior year.

Each student has a transcript recording his or her grades in each course. Access to students' records is limited, and federal laws protect students' privacy.

Diplomas and Degrees

A diploma is a formal, written confirmation of completion of academic requirements at any level of study. Degrees, on the other hand, indicate completion of the academic requirements at specific levels of higher education. U.S. colleges and universities issue diplomas at a formal ceremony, called "graduation" or "commencement," when the degree is publicly awarded. The four degrees in higher education in the United States are the associate, the baccalaureate, the master's, and the doctorate.

The associate degree is usually awarded after 60 credit hours have been completed. The baccalaureate, or bachelor's degree, indicates 120 to 128 credit hours completed, and the master's degree indicates further, postgraduate study of one or two years. The doctoral degree usually requires at least two years of courses beyond the bachelor's, in addition to substantive research culminating in an original scholarly contribution in an academic area. This work can take from one to six or eight years beyond the baccalaureate to complete.

Associate Degree

Two-year colleges (junior or community colleges) generally grant the associate degree in arts (A.A.) or science (A.S.). Some four-year colleges and universities also award it. The associate degree usually is accepted for transfer to a four-year college in lieu of the first two years leading to the bachelor's degree.

Bachelor's Degree

Although the traditional bachelor's degree, which requires four years of full-time study, is in arts (B.A.) or science (B.S.), some colleges and universities award bachelor's degrees which identify the specific area of concentration. This is especially true in the case of professional concentrations, such as the bachelor of education, bachelor of nursing, or bachelor of social work. The bachelor of fine arts degree ordinarily indicates that the concentration has been in an area of performance (art, drama, dance).

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Master's Degree

The master's degree, traditionally a master of arts or a master of science, also may be awarded in professional areas such as education (M.Ed.), nursing (M.S.N.), business administration (M.B.A.), fine arts (M.F.A.), or social work (M.S.W.). Every master's degree indicates one or two years of full-time study (or the equivalent) at the graduate level. Some master's degrees require a thesis or original piece of work.

Doctoral Degree

The doctoral degree is the highest academic degree awarded by universities in the United States. In this category, the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree indicates at least two years of courses beyond the bachelor's degree, successful completion of written and oral comprehensive examinations, and a major research project in the form of a dissertation. Other doctorates include the Doctor of Medicine (M.D.), Doctor of Education (Ed.D.), and Doctor of Jurisprudence (J.D.). All require substantive coursework beyond the master's level, comprehensive examinations, and a scholarly paper (if not a dissertation).

Institutional Income and Expenditures

The resources committed to higher education ($185 billion in 1995–96, or about 3 percent of GDP) demonstrate the priority given higher education in the United States. Since 1975–76, expenditures have increased by more than 70 percent (in inflation-adjusted terms). For a general picture of the costs, consider the expenditure patterns of an "average" public and private college or university. (The allocations below are listed in percentages to facilitate comparison.)

Table I

Current-Fund Expenditures (1994–95)*

	Public Institutions	Private Institutions
Instruction	32.6%	26.8%
Research**	10.2%	7.8%
Public Service	4.4%	2.5%
Academic Support (including libraries)	7.3%	5.7%
Student Services	4.9%	5.1%
Institutional Support	8.6%	10.2%
Operation and Maintenance of Plant	6.6%	6.0%
Scholarships and Fellowships	4.0%	11.3%
Mandatory Transfers	1.2%	1.6%
Auxiliary Enterprises, Hospitals, Independent Operations	19.9%	18.1%
Federally Financed Research and Development Centers	0.2%	4.9%

* Because of rounding, percentages may not add to 100.

**Two-year colleges usually spend much less on research; at doctorate-granting institutions, research costs may be as high as 19 percent for public institutions and 15 percent for private institutions.[11]

[11] U.S. Department of Education. *Digest of Education Statistics*, 1997, pp. 352-353.

State and local governments provide direct operating support to public institutions. Federal funding is not provided as general support but as grants or loans disbursed to students in order to pay for college; it also is supplied through competitive awards, grants, and contracts. In the table below, "sales and other services" refers to revenue-producing operations at the institutional level, such as publishing, hospitals, campus bookstores, student dormitories and dining rooms, and various other endeavors.

Table 2

Current-Fund Income (1994–95)*

	Public Institutions	Private Institutions
Tuition and Fees from Students	18.4%	42.4%
Federal Government**	11.1%	14.3%
State Governments	35.9%	2.1%
Local Governments	4.1%	.6%
Private Gifts, Grants, and Contracts	4.0%	8.8%
Endowment Income	0.6%	4.7%
Sales and Other Services	23.0%	22.2%
Other Sources	3.1%	4.7%

* Information on institutional finance is from *The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac*, vol. XLV, no. 1., 28 August 1998.

** The substantial variation in support for two-year colleges, comprehensive institutions, and research universities is not reflected in these figures.

The Cost of Higher Education to Students and their Families

In 1998-99, the average annual undergraduate tuition rates were as follows:

Public Community College (two-year)	$ 1,633
Public University (four-year, BA degree-granting)	$ 3,243
Private College or University (four-year, BA degree-granting)	$14,508

In addition to tuition, students pay an average of $650 annually for books and supplies; those who live on campus pay approximately $5,042 for room and board at private institutions and $4,342 at public institutions. Almost three out of four full-time undergraduates who attend four-year institutions have annual tuition charges (before student aid) of less than $8,000, and more than half have tuition charges of less than $4,000. Only 6 percent of undergraduates attend institutions charging $20,000 or more for tuition.

Qualified students can choose from a wide range of public and private colleges and universities with significantly different costs. The cost of postsecondary education certainly has increased over the past decade, but so, too, have opportunities for financial aid. More than $60 billion in aid is available to students; low-interest loans account for nearly 60 percent of the total, with the remainder being disbursed as grants. Approximately 70 percent of full-time students receive some form of financial aid that covers about 40 percent of the total costs. At private colleges, the average amount of aid is $9,000 per year. Three out of four full-time undergraduate students pay less than $10,000 per year for everything–tuition, room, board, books, and living expenses. A third pay less than $5,000 per year.

Elements of Costs to Students

The major costs for U.S. college and university students are tuition, fees, and room and board (for those living on campus). Tuition is the charge to the student to help cover the cost of instruction. Depending upon the institution, undergraduate tuition for an academic year may be less than $1,000 or more than $20,000. As a rule, tuition rates are higher at private colleges and universities than at public institutions. Public institutions' tuition rate for state residents usually is somewhat lower than for nonresidents. Out-of-state students are required to pay a higher percentage of the costs–usually $2,000 to $3,000 more per year–because they have not paid taxes to underwrite the cost of their education. Tuition/fee charges at graduate and professional schools typically are higher than at the undergraduate level.

Many colleges and universities charge an annual student fee, which may cover medical insurance, campus cultural events, athletics, student publications, and campus parking. Some institutions include the costs of these services as part of tuition or charge a separate fee for each service. In addition to general fees,

students may also pay special fees for such services as laboratory materials and rental of musical instruments. These fees can add from $100 to $1,000 to annual costs.

Most institutions offer a variety of meal plans to students who wish to use the college dining facilities. Many students not living at home pay board to live in campus dormitories; others rent apartments off campus or make other arrangements for room and board.

Financing Foreign Students

The cost of education at U.S. institutions is the same for both foreign and U.S. students, except that public institutions usually offer a reduced tuition rate for state residents. In addition, some institutions charge foreign students a special (higher) application fee to cover the additional costs of processing applications for students abroad.

Eighty percent of the foreign students in the United States have their own funding. Only a small amount of funding is available from either U.S. government or non-government sources. Generally speaking, U.S. federal financial aid is not available to foreign students.* However, most forms of institutional aid (e.g., university grants, scholarships, teaching and research assistantships, etc.) are available to all students, especially after their first year of study. A few institutions provide limited numbers of special awards specifically for foreign students. Several good sources of information are available regarding financial planning and funding, including the College Entrance Examination Board's *Diversity, Accessibility, and Quality: An Introduction to United States Education for Educators from Other Countries,* and the College Scholarship Service of The College Board's *College Cost and Financial Aid Handbook.* (See www.collegeboard.org/.) The Institute for International Education publishes *Funding for United States Study: A Guide for International Students and Professionals* (see www.iie.org).

*The U.S. government offers a limited number of scholarships to foreign students through major programs, including the Fulbright program for foreign graduate students, administered by the Institute of International Education for the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs in the U.S. Department of State (formerly in the United States Information Agency). The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) sponsors other training award programs for international development, usually through its missions abroad.

IV. MAJOR ISSUES IN U.S. HIGHER EDUCATION

Major issues for U.S. colleges and universities include costs and funding, quality and assessment (including teaching), equal opportunities for access, governance, information technology, accountability, and internationalization.

Costs and Funding

One of the most critical and contentious issues today is the cost of higher education and related concerns about student financial aid. Over the past ten years, tuition at four-year public colleges has increased by 48 percent (adjusted for inflation); at four-year private colleges, it has increased by 36 percent. Although increases have stabilized at about 4 percent per year, in the last few years the increases over the decade have had significant political and public relations consequences for most institutions. The causes of rising costs for higher education are multiple, including a long period of reduced state and federal government support for higher education, the high cost of new technologies, and efforts to make up for no or very low salary increases in the 1980s in a market in which business and government, as well as other institutions, are competing for the best faculty. Increased tuition costs have led to public concern about the affordability of higher education. Most higher education institutions have made special efforts to stabilize costs; some have even promised to limit increases to the rate of inflation. In the short run, greater efficiencies may help, but a long-term solution must involve new sources of funding and cheaper modes of delivery. Many colleges now outsource services not tied directly to their institutional missions (e.g., food services, grounds, cleaning, housing). Others have launched major fundraising campaigns and are searching for alternative funding sources.

Gifts are increasingly important to the maintenance of high-quality colleges and universities. In 1996–97, gifts provided almost 5 percent of the total income for public institutions and 14 percent for private institutions. Of the total, approximately 33 percent was from alumni, 25 percent was from other individuals, 20 percent was from corporations, 20 percent was from foundations, and the remainder was from a variety of organizations, including religious groups.[12] Of the top ten fund-raising institutions in 1996–97, four were state universities (the University of Wisconsin-Madison, the University of California Los Angeles, the University of California Berkeley, and the University of Pennsylvania), with an average of approximately $200 million raised per year. Endowments have always been important for private colleges and universities, but they are becoming increasingly vital to many public institutions as well. However, only about 100 institutions have endowments large enough to make a significant difference in available funding.

Quality and Assessment

Both political leaders and the public are increasingly concerned about the quality of U.S. higher education. Concerns about institutions' overall quality, as well as their instruction, research, and service, have resulted in calls for more precise measures of quality, including achievement tests for students, measures of faculty performance, and evidence that institutions are meeting benchmarks for efficiency and productivity. There is no disagreement about the importance of quality, but critics disagree about who should measure, judge, and ensure it. Such concerns have embroiled some states in conflicts about testing teacher proficiency and appropriate measures of student success and have led to attempts to give state or federal government more control over quality measures, including accreditation. At both private and public institutions, the predominant view is that quality assessment is the responsibility of the higher education community as a whole and that standards should be set and reviewed by professional bodies not associated with government.

[12] *The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac*, Volume XLV, Number 1, 28 August 1998: 34.

Affirmative Action and Access for Minority Students

African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians continue to lag behind white Americans in educational attainment. In 1994, only 16.9 percent, 17.8 percent, and 15 percent, respectively, earned a bachelor's degree, in contrast to 27.3 percent of white Americans.[13] This has a profound effect on both the earning potential and the quality of life of these groups.

Affirmative action is intended to increase the proportions of underrepresented groups (especially people of color and women) in higher education by diversifying college and university student bodies and faculties. In recent years, several important conflicts about affirmative action—in California and Texas, in particular—have begun to reshape the debate. The decision of the University of California (UC) Board of Regents to eliminate affirmative action as part of the admissions process resulted in a decrease in the number of minority students on UC campuses in 1998. A legal decision against affirmative action in Texas had a similar result.

The consequences of education on earnings are readily apparent: 1998 Census Bureau findings show that college graduates, on average, earned $40,478 per year while high school graduates earned an average of only $22,895.[14] Affirmative action aims to bring minorities' opportunities for higher education (and, thus, higher salaries) to a level of parity. The difference in salaries between high school and college graduates is consistent across race and gender. However, minorities lag behind their white counterparts at both educational levels and earn, on average, only 77 percent as much as whites. Women earn two-thirds of what men earn. Affirmative action is designed to help eliminate the income differentials resulting from discrimination.

[13] *The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac*, Volume XLV, Number 1, 28 August 1998: 16.

[14] Source: "Higher Education Means More Money, Census Bureau Says." U.S. Census Bureau, Economic and Statistics Administration, 10 December 1998.

Gender inequalities in higher education continue to be a problem. Although more women than men are enrolled at colleges and universities (55.8 percent of enrolled students in 1998 were women), they earn about half as many professional degrees and Ph.D.s as men. Only half as many women as men have faculty positions, and women represent only 16 percent of college and university presidents.[15]

Governance

The issues of power, authority, and responsibility in higher education remain contentious. Conflicts between governing boards and presidents are frequent. Issues pertaining to the authority of the faculty senate are commonplace, especially insofar as academic matters are concerned. Governing boards have the ultimate fiduciary responsibility for their institutions, but their tendency to become directly involved in the day-to-day functions of the institution is a frequent cause of tension among boards, presidents, and faculty. Similarly, some presidents believe that the faculty (and often the senate) have too much power. Many faculty members argue that the academic aspects of the institution are (or should be) run by the faculty, with the board and the president providing an effective teaching and working environment. At public institutions, conflict over governance may be compounded by political intervention by the governing board, the members of which often are appointed by the governor or by legislative action. Because private institutions appoint their own boards, they are more protected from direct political interference. The role of students in the governance structure also remains a contentious issue.

Information Technology and Education Policy

New technologies and alternative modes of delivery are changing the way in which students and faculty interact. These technologies provide opportunities for alternative and enhanced modes of delivery; they also raise new questions about faculty load, intellectual property, and student rights.

[15] *The Chronicle of Higher Education Almanac*, op. cit., p. 30.

The rapidly changing work environment and growing interest in "lifelong learning" have resulted in a boom in distance education. A large number of courses are offered on the Internet; they range from single, highly specialized courses to programs in which all the coursework necessary for a degree is available on line. Efforts to create "virtual universities" aim to provide all aspects of a higher education curriculum via the Internet.

The rapid expansion of distance education raises new issues of competition and change, accreditation, and quality control. Is distance education a threat to the existing structures of two- and four-year colleges and universities? Should they adopt distance education as a major mode of delivery? What are the implications for the student-teacher relationship, for the discussion of ideas, and for the non-formal aspects of a college or university education?

How can society ensure that students receive high-quality instruction and that accreditors and employers recognize their degrees? The Internet and other technologies provide opportunities for distance education across national boundaries, making questions of national accreditation and quality control even more complex.

Information technology and globalization create pressure for an international standard for higher education. Some foreign institutions perceive globalization as Westernization—an attack on the unique cultures and values of their society—and seek to isolate themselves from what they see as an unwarranted intrusion. Others believe that higher education must infuse international perspectives, with no one nation or region setting its standards or values.

Accountability

Demands for greater accountability of colleges and universities (especially public institutions) to taxpayers, government, and alumni are made regularly. It sometimes is argued that institutions are "out of touch" with their constituents, that research has taken far too prominent a place, and that teaching is not held in the esteem it once was. As a result, a variety of bills have been introduced in Congress to regulate everything from which team sports institutions can cancel to laws requiring that federal funding for states be withheld until teachers are tested for proficiency. To date, little of this legislation has succeeded, but demands for accountability to government are certain to continue. An increasing number of state governments are demanding that state institutions respond to designated state needs and meet performance targets set by state officials.

Higher education institutions fear a loss of autonomy, though they also recognize the need for accountability. The concern is that once accountability is politicized, higher education will lose the autonomy, openness, and flexibility that have been the essential conditions for high quality and creativity.

Internationalization

Many U.S. higher education institutions are intensifying their efforts to internationalize the curriculum, research, and service functions. The Fulbright Program for student, scholar, and teacher exchanges was established in 1946 to encourage international exchanges. In the 1950s and 1960s, interdisciplinary area studies programs were developed at most major research universities (and some other institutions) to study Latin America, Africa, Russia, Europe, and Asia; attention was focused on language study and a broad range of political, social, and cultural aspects of other parts of the world. The Cold War added urgency to these efforts, and the federal government provided substantial funding for training, scholarship, and travel through a variety of programs, including foreign language and area studies grants.

With the end of the Cold War, this funding diminished, somewhat. Because of the financial pressures of the 1980s, faculty members were not replaced. Federal support for international programs also fell some; for example, funding for Fulbright-Hays and Title VI programs dropped by 51 percent and 17 percent, respectively, from their high points in the 1960s.[16]

The number of students studying languages declined by almost 4 percent from 1990 to 1995. As a percentage of total enrollment, language dropped from 8.2 percent in 1990 to 7.6 percent in 1995, and overall has decreased by a startling 46 percent since 1960.[17]

A major concern is whether the United States will be able to compete effectively in an increasingly global economic, intellectual, and political arena given its diminished pool of area specialists and graduates who are less well prepared to understand and operate in an international environment than other countries' graduates.

As political, economic, social, health, and environmental problems become more acute, effective economic, political, and social relations will depend on the ability of citizens of different nations to understand and communicate effectively with one another.

Other Issues

Many other topics have the potential to become major issues for higher education, including efficiency, leadership, research goals, and success rates. The economy, international conflict, and political and social change will continue to affect the mix of issues that become the focus of higher education's attention at any given time.

[16]"Recommendations on Reauthorization of the Higher Education Act of 1965, as Amended for Title IV, International Education Programs and Fulbright-Hays (102 (b)(6))," Interassociation Task Force, May 1991, Appendices A & D.

[17]Percentages are based on Modern Language Association data as analyzed by Richard Brod and Bettina J. Huber "Foreign Language Enrollments in United States Institutions of Higher Education," Fall 1999, *ADFL Bulletin*, Vol. 28, No. 2, Winter 1997, and by ACE staff.

V. ORGANIZATIONS AND U.S. GOVERNMENT AGENCIES INVOLVED IN INTERNATIONAL HIGHER EDUCATION

The following is a short list of organizations and agencies involved in international higher education. For a more comprehensive list of U.S. government agencies and private organizations involved in exchange activities, please see the *International Exchange Locator: A Resource Directory for Educational and Cultural Exchange*, published annually by the Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange in partnership with the U.S. Information Agency.

ORGANIZATIONS:

ACADEMY FOR EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (AED)
1875 Connecticut Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20009-1202
Phone: (202) 884-8000
Fax: (202) 884-8400
E-mail: admindc@aed.org
Website: http://www.aed.org

AED is a nonprofit service organization devoted to helping people around the world meet their social and economic development needs through education, training, social and behavioral research, and policy analysis. It assists local, state, and federal government agencies; non-governmental and private organizations; schools, colleges, and universities; and community-based organizations.

AFRICA–AMERICA INSTITUTE (AAI)
833 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017
Phone: (212) 949-5666
1625 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 667-5636
Website: http://www.aaionline.org

The Africa–America Institute is a private, nonprofit organization concerned with furthering African development, strengthening African-American understanding, and informing Americans about Africa. With headquarters in New York City, AAI also has a Washington office and representatives in 23 African countries.

ALLIANCE FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL EXCHANGE
1776 Massachusetts Ave., NW, Suite 600
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 293-6141
Fax: (202) 293-6144
E-mail: info@alliance-exchange.org
Website: http://www.alliance-exchange.org

The Alliance for International Educational and Cultural Exchange is an association of nonprofit organizations comprising the international educational and cultural exchange community in the United States. Its mission is to formulate and promote public policies that support the growth and well-being of international exchanges between the people of the United States and those of other nations.

AMERICA-MIDEAST EDUCATIONAL & TRAINING SERVICES, INC. (AMIDEAST)
1730 M Street, NW, Suite 1100
Washington, DC 20036-4505
Phone: (202) 776-9600
Fax: (202) 776-7000
E-mail: inquiries@amideast.org
Website: http://www.amideast.org

AMIDEAST, Inc. offers educational advising and testing for Arab students and institutions interested in U.S. educational opportunities (mainly through field offices overseas); educational and training program administration (mainly in Washington, DC) of more than 60 programs for a variety of government, corporate, and institutional sponsors of Arab students; English-language programs for the general public and corporate and government agency clients in Bahrain, Egypt,

Kuwait, Lebanon, Tunisia, and Yemen; publications and videotapes to support educational exchanges and materials to improve teaching about the Arab world in American secondary schools and colleges; and technical assistance to support institution building in the Arab world.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION (AAHE)

One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 360
Washington, DC 20036-1110
Phone: (202) 293-6440
Fax: (202) 293-0073
E-mail: info@aahe.org
Website: http://www.aahe.org

The American Association for Higher Education is the individual membership organization that promotes the changes higher education must make to ensure its effectiveness in a complex, interconnected world. The association equips individuals and institutions committed to such changes with the knowledge they need to bring about those changes. To achieve this, AAHE articulates agendas for change, provides forums and contributes to knowledge, advocates effective practices, documents and promotes new concepts of scholarship, and helps institutions develop their capacities.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION (AACTE)

One Dupont Circle, Suite 610
Washington, DC 20036-1186
Phone: (202) 293-2450
Fax: (202) 457-8095
Website: http://www.aacte.org

AACTE is a private, nonprofit, non-governmental association committed to the improvement of teacher education. Its members are U.S. higher education institutions engaged in teacher and administrator preparation, in-service education, and educational research.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS AND ADMISSIONS OFFICERS (AACRAO)

One Dupont Circle, Suite 330
Washington, DC 20036-1171
Phone: (202) 293-9161
Fax: (202) 872-8857
E-mail: oies@aacrao.nche.edu
Website: http://www.aacrao.com

AACRAO's 8,400 individual members, from 2,400 postsecondary member institutions in the United States and abroad, are professionals working in admissions, enrollment management, financial aid, registration, records, scheduling, academic standards, institutional research, and student progress. Its corporate members are drawn from education-related businesses and agencies, as are its associate and affiliate members.

AACRAO's Office of International Education Services provides foreign credential evaluation to member institutions and trains professionals in the evaluation of foreign credentials.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES (AACC)

One Dupont Circle, Suite 410
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 728-0200
Fax: (202) 833-2467
Website: http://www.aacc.nche.edu

AACC promotes the causes of its 1,100 member colleges through legislative advocacy; monitoring of national issues and trends; collection, analysis, and dissemination of information; representation to other educational agencies and the national media; and research and publication of news and scholarly analyses.

The Office of International Services provides AACC member institutions with information on funding opportunities; overseas exchange opportunities for faculty, administrators, and students; and legislative issues as they affect international education.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF STATE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (AASCU)
1307 New York Avenue, NW , Fifth Floor
Washington, DC 20005-4701
Phone: (202) 293-7070
Fax: (202) 296-5819
Website: http://www.aascu.org

The members of the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) include more than 400 public colleges and universities and systems across the United States and in Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Virgin Islands. AASCU promotes broad public understanding of the essential role of public higher education in our society; monitors public policy at the national, state, and campus levels; responds to the interests of its members by providing policy leadership and programmatic assistance; and provides professional development opportunities and support. The Office of International Programs assists members in providing international and cross-cultural programs through a variety of faculty and institutional development activities, including presidential missions abroad, faculty development seminars and institutes, international education resources, and linkages with international education associations and universities.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION (ACE)
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20036-1193
Phone: (202) 939-9313
Fax: (202) 785-8056
Website: http://www.acenet.edu

The American Council on Education, with more than 1,600 member institutions from all sectors of higher education and 200 national and regional organizations, is the most comprehensive higher education association in the United States.

The council investigates educational problems of wide concern, enlists appropriate agencies to help solve them, monitors pending legislation affecting education, and serves as liaison between education institutions and federal government agencies.

In cooperation with its Commission on International Education, the council serves as a source of information on international education to member institutions, policy makers, and the public; helps member institutions strengthen their international programs and the international dimensions of their curricula; provides leadership for national policy discussions on international education; and creates linkages with national organizations in other countries as well as international higher education organizations.

ASSOCIATION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS (AIEA)

AIEA Secretariat
c/o Timothy J. Rutenber
Office of International Education
University at Buffalo
411 Capen Hall, Box 601604
Buffalo, New York 14260-1604
Phone: (716) 645-2368
Fax: (716) 645-2528
E-mail: rutenber@acsu.buffalo.edu
Website: http://www.aieaworld.org

The Association of International Education Administrators (AIEA), a membership organization formed in November 1982, is composed of institutional leaders engaged in advancing the international dimensions of higher education.

ASSOCIATION LIAISON OFFICE FOR UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN DEVELOPMENT (ALO)
1307 New York Avenue, NW, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20005-4701
Phone: (202) 478-4700
Fax: (202) 478-4715
E-mail: alo@aascu.org
Website: http://www.aascu.org/alo

The Association Liaison Office for University Cooperation in Development (ALO) coordinates the efforts of the nation's six major higher education associations* to strengthen their partnership with the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and to help their member institutions plan and implement development programs with colleges and universities abroad. ALO oversees and administers a cooperative agreement between USAID and the six associations.

**American Association of Community Colleges, American Association of State Colleges and Universities, American Council on Education, Association of American Universities, National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities, and the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges*

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (AAC&U)
1818 R Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
Phone: (202) 387-3760
Fax: (202) 265-9532
E-mail: aacupgm3@gwuvm.gwu.edu
Website: http://www.aacu-edu.org

AAC&U sponsors a broad range of projects to support liberal learning on U.S. campuses—including projects that focus on international education. Examples include a year-long faculty and curriculum development seminar on Japan; an exploration, with the National Foreign Language Center of the Johns Hopkins University, of the purposes and practices of language teaching and learning in higher education; and a FIPSE-supported project to advise the Japanese national universities in their efforts to create programs in English for U.S. undergraduates.

ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES (AAU)
1200 New York Avenue, NW, Suite 550
Washington, DC 20005
Phone: (202) 408-7500
Website: http://www.tulane.edu/~aau/index.html

The Association of American Universities serves its member institutions through activities designed to encourage timely consideration of major issues affecting the quality of academic research and advanced education. It enables member institutions to communicate more effectively with the federal government. Founded in 1900 by 14 U.S. universities offering the Ph.D. degree, the association currently has a membership of 60 U.S. and 2 Canadian universities with preeminent graduate and professional education and scholarly research programs.

ASSOCIATION OF CATHOLIC COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (ACCU)
One Dupont Circle, Suite 650
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 457-0650
Fax: (202) 728-0977
Website: http://www.accunet.org

The Association of Catholic Colleges and Universities facilitates exchanges among Catholic higher education institutions and represents them through relationships with other national higher education associations, church-related higher education institutions, the International Federation of Catholic Universities, and various federal government agencies. The Office for International Education is concerned with faculty and student exchange programs and also with efforts to raise U.S. faculty and student consciousness of world concerns.

ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNING BOARDS OF UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES (AGB)
One Dupont Circle, Suite 400
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 296-8400
Fax: (202) 223-7053
Website: http://www.agb.org

AGB is dedicated to strengthening the performance of governing boards of public and private higher education institutions. It serves as a continuing education resource to trustees and boards and contributes to effective working relationships between boards and chief executives.

ASSOCIATION OF JESUIT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (AJCU)
1424 16th Street, NW, Suite 300
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 862-9893
Fax: (202) 862-8523
Website: http://www.ajcunet.edu

AJCU represents the 28 Jesuit colleges and universities in the United States. It serves as their representative in Washington and as a clearinghouse for information about these institutions.

APPA: THE ASSOCIATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION FACILITIES OFFICERS
1643 Prince Street
Alexandria, VA 22314-2818
Phone: (703) 684-1446
Fax: (703) 549-2772
Website: http://www.appa.org

APPA: The Association of Higher Education Facilities Officers represents more than 1,500 member higher education institutions in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and other countries. Its purpose is to promote excellence in the administration, care, operation, planning, and development of higher education facilities.

THE COLLEGE BOARD/OFFICE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
1233 20th Street, NW, Suite 600
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 822-5900
Fax: (202) 822-5234
E-mail: internatl@collegeboard.org
Website: http://www.collegeboard.org

The College Board is a nonprofit education organization made up of more than 2,500 colleges, schools, school systems, and education associations. Through its Office of International Education, it works to increase access to higher and postgraduate education in the United States for both American nationals living abroad and foreign students.

COLLEGE CONSORTIUM FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDIES (CCIS)
2000 P Street, NW, Suite 503
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 223-0330
Fax: (202) 223-0999
E-mail: ccis@intr.net
Website: www.studyabroad.com/ccis

CCIS, a partnership of colleges and universities of all types, sponsors a variety of programs—notably study abroad programs and professional development seminars for faculty and administrators—which are designed to enhance international/intercultural perspectives within the academic community.

THE COLLEGE FUND (UNCF)
8260 Willow Oaks Corporate Drive
Fairfax, VA 22031
Phone: (800) 331-2244
Website: http://www.uncf.org

The College Fund (UNCF) is the nation's oldest African-American higher education assistance organization. It is a consortium of 39 private, accredited, four-year historically black colleges and universities. Though UNCF has broadened its focus by offering more programs designed to enhance the quality of education for America's brightest young minds, its original commitment to providing financial assistance to deserving students, raising operating funds for member colleges and universities, and supplying technical assistance to member institutions remains unchanged.

COUNCIL FOR INTERNATIONAL EXCHANGE OF SCHOLARS
3007 Tilden Street, NW, Suite 5M
Washington, DC 20008-3009
Phone: (202) 686-7877
Fax: (202) 362-3442
E-mail: scholars@cies.iie.org
Website: http://www.iie.org/cies

The Council for International Exchange of Scholars (CIES), affiliated with the Institute of International Education, cooperates with the U.S. Information Agency in the administration of the Fulbright Senior Scholar program.

Each year, CIES announces approximately 1,000 Fulbright awards for U.S. scholars to teach or conduct research at universities in more than 135 countries. It also assists in administering nearly 1,000 Fulbright awards given each year to scholars from other countries for research, teaching, or consultation in the United States.

COUNCIL OF CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICERS (CCSSO)
One Massachusetts Avenue, NW, Suite 700
Washington, DC 20001-1431
Phone: (202) 408-5505
Fax: (202) 408-8072
Website: http://www.ccsso.org

CCSSO provides practitioners around the world with access to information on educational practices and materials and innovative approaches to educational problems through joint sponsorship of international conferences and exchanges of strategies.

COUNCIL OF GRADUATE SCHOOLS (CGS)
One Dupont Circle, Suite 430
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 223-3791
Fax: (202) 331-7157
Website: http://www.cgsnet.org

The Council of Graduate Schools was established in 1961 as an organization of higher education institutions engaged in graduate education, research, and scholarship. Its members include 415 graduate schools, of which 12 are Canadian universities and eight are international associate members. The U.S. member institutions enroll 80 percent of all graduate students.

The council is dedicated to the improvement and advancement of graduate education. CGS acts as a convening authority, bringing graduate deans together in task forces, committees, workshops, seminars, and annual meetings to discuss and take action on major issues.

COUNCIL OF INDEPENDENT COLLEGES (CIC)
One Dupont Circle, Suite 320
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 466-7230
Fax: (202) 466-7238
E-mail: cic@cic.nche.edu
Website: http://www.cic.edu

Founded in 1956, the Council of Independent Colleges is an international association of more than 400 independent liberal arts colleges and universities. CIC works with college presidents, academic deans, other administrators, and faculty to help its member institutions enhance educational programs, improve their administrative and financial performance, and increase their institutional visibility. The council is known as a source of both practical advice for college leaders and ideas for educational reform.

COUNCIL ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGE (CIEE)
205 East 42nd Street
New York, NY 10017
Phone: (212) 822-2699
Fax: (212) 822-2699
E-mail: info@ciee.org
Website: http://www.ciee.org

The Council on International Educational Exchange, a nonprofit, nongovernmental organization, is one of the world's leading operators of international exchange programs and related services. Known as "Council" and often referred to as CIEE, it operates in several exchange areas: professional/business, college and university programs, secondary school programs, language study, work exchanges, voluntary service, and travel services.

COUNCIL FOR HIGHER EDUCATION ACCREDITATION (CHEA)
One Dupont Circle, Suite 510
Washington, DC 20036
phone: 202-995-6126
fax: 202-995-6129
e-mail: chea@chea.org
Website: http://www.chea.org

CHEA is a nongovernmental organization designed to facilitate the role of accrediting associations in promoting and assuring the quality of American postsecondary education. It recognizes, coordinates, and periodically reviews the work of accrediting associations and determines the appropriateness of existing or proposed accrediting agencies and their activities.

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER CLEARINGHOUSE ON HIGHER EDUCATION (ERIC/HE)
The George Washington University
Graduate School of Education and Human Development
One Dupont Circle, Suite 630
Washington, DC 20036-1183
Phone: (202) 296-2597 or (800) 773-ERIC
Fax: 202-452-1844
Website: http://www.eriche.org

The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system designed to provide users with ready access to an extensive body of education-related literature. ERIC, established in 1966, is supported by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, and the National Library of Education.

INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION (IIE)
809 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017-3580
Phone: (212) 883-8200
Fax: (212) 984-5452

1400 K Street, NW
Washington, DC 20005-2403
Phone: (202) 898-0600
Website: http://www.iie.org

Founded in 1919, IIE is the largest private, nonprofit educational exchange organization in the United States. Each year it assists nearly 10,000 U.S. and foreign students, faculty, and development professionals overseas, as well as distinguished foreign visitors to the United States. The institute administers 248 programs for 217 sponsors, including the U.S. and foreign governments, international organizations, foundations, corporations, and universities. It is well known for its administration of the Fulbright Fellowship at the post-baccalaureate level for U.S. and foreign students and artists on behalf of the U.S. State Department (formerly on behalf of the U.S. Information

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Agency, as well as for its work in the areas of energy, the environment, business/trade, higher education, and the arts. It devotes considerable attention to international capacity building for U.S. students and pre-professionals and provides short-term training and familiarization for foreign visitors.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR EQUAL OPPORTUNITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION (NAFEO)

8701 George Avenue, Suite 200
Silver Spring, MD 20910
Phone: (301) 650-2440
Fax: (301) 495-3306
Website: http://www.nafeo.org

The National Association of Equal Opportunity in Higher Education is the national umbrella and public policy advocacy organization for 118 of the nation's historically and predominantly Black colleges and universities. It represents the interests of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) through the executive, legislative, regulatory and judicial branches of federal and state government and articulates the need for a system of higher education where race, ethnicity, socio-economic status, and previous educational attainment levels are not determinants of either the quantity or quality of higher education.

NAFSA: ASSOCIATION OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATORS

1307 New York Avenue, NW, Eighth Floor
Washington, DC 20005-4701
Phone: (202) 737-3699
Fax: (202) 737-3657
E-mail: inbox@nafsa.org
Website: http://www.nafsa.org

NAFSA is a nonprofit membership association that provides training, information, and other educational services to professionals in the field of international educational exchange. The association establishes and upholds standards of good practice in international educational exchange. It provides a forum for discussion of issues and a network for sharing information as it seeks to increase awareness of and support for international education in higher education, in government, and in the community.

Members of NAFSA include foreign student advisors, international admissions officers, ESL teachers and administrators, study abroad administrators, overseas educational advisors, community support groups, sponsored program administrators, and others joining the ranks as campuses internationalize and integrate their international programs and services into campus life. NAFSA also draws members from associations and foundations, international and national corporations, research centers, community organizations, and cultural groups.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY BUSINESS OFFICERS (NACUBO)

2501 M Street, NW, Suite 400
Washington, DC 20037
Phone: (202) 861-2500
Fax: (202) 861-2583
Website: http://www.nacubo.org

NACUBO's mission is to promote sound management and financial administration of colleges and universities. Regular programs include federal relations, research, communications, workshops, and information exchange. Topics covered by these program areas include accounting and costing, planning and budgeting, grant and contract administration, investment management, student aid, risk management and insurance, assessing institutional financial health, personnel administration, safety and security, facilities planning and management, energy, legal concerns, purchasing, internal control, and auditing.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF INDEPENDENT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES (NAICU)

1025 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 700
Washington, DC 20036-5405
Phone: (202) 785-8866
Fax: (202) 835-0003
Website: http://www.naicu.edu

The National Association of Independent Colleges and Universities (NAICU) represents independent colleges and universities on public policy issues before the legislative, executive, and regulatory branches of the federal government. Founded in 1976, NAICU has more than 800 members nationwide that reflect the diversity of independent, nonprofit higher education in the United States. Member institutions include liberal arts colleges, research universities, church- and faith-related colleges, historically black colleges, women's colleges, two-year colleges, and schools of law, medicine, engineering, business, and other professions.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE UNIVERSITIES AND LAND-GRANT COLLEGES (NASULGC)

1307 New York Avenue, NW, Suite 400
Washington, DC 20005-4701
Phone: (202) 478-6040
Fax: (202) 478-6046
Website: http://www.nasulgc.org

The National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) serves as a cohesive force for a special segment of higher education: the principal state universities in the United States and all of its land-grant colleges, including the College of American Samoa and the College of Micronesia. It provides a link between member universities, which are state assisted, and the federal government. The association works to focus public attention on the contributions of state and land-grant universities to U.S. society through teaching, research, and public service and to improve community understanding of the worth and responsiveness of higher education to the public.

The Office of Federal Relations, International Affairs serves as a center for information on legislation and programs related to international education, as well as research and development. It also serves as a liaison between the universities and government agencies, private organizations, and education associations concerned with international programs and studies. The staff works closely with international program officials at NASULGC member institutions and consortia to help establish and strengthen relationships with developing countries, particularly in the areas of development cooperation and international linkages.

SOCIETY FOR COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PLANNING (SCUP)

4251 Plymouth Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48105
Phone: (734) 998-7832
Fax: (734) 998-6532
E-mail: scup@umich.edu
Website: http://www.scup.org

The Society of College and University Planning is dedicated to the promotion, advancement, and application of effective planning in higher education, at all levels and in all contexts. Its organizing principle is that planning is essential to the health, vitality, and quality of higher education—especially during times of significant change. A major strategic objective is to identify and compile the substantive knowledge about higher education planning—its purposes, processes, and technology—and create an accessible information base.

UNIVERSITY CONTINUING EDUCATION ASSOCIATION (UCEA)

One Dupont Circle, Suite 615
Washington, DC 20036
Phone: (202) 659-3130
Fax: (202) 785-0374
Website: http://www.nucea.edu

Founded in 1915, the University Continuing Education Association (formerly the National University Continuing Education Association) promotes expanded opportunities for high-quality continuing higher education. The association includes some 425 higher education institutions serving pre- and post-baccalaureate level part-time students enrolled in degree and non-degree programs.

The association is involved in a variety of international activities and linkages, including the North American Continuing Education Fellows Program and a formal collaboration with the International Council for Distance Education.

THE WORLD BANK HEADQUARTERS

1818 H Street, NW
Phone: (202) 477-1234
Website: http://www.worldbank.org

The World Bank is the largest provider of development assistance, committing about U.S. $20 billion in new loans each year. The Bank also plays a vital role in coordinating with other organizations—private, government, multilateral, and nongovernmental—to ensure that resources are used to full effect in supporting a country's development agenda.

U.S. GOVERNMENT AGENCIES

U.S. AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (USAID)

Ronald Reagan Federal Building
1300 Pennsylvania Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20523-3901
Phone: (202) 712-0000
Website: http://www.info.usaid.gov

USAID supports U.S. college and university involvement in international development projects, training programs for technical and professional individuals from developing countries at U.S. colleges and universities, and linkages with universities in developing countries.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

400 Maryland Avenue, SW
Washington, DC 20202-0498
Phone: (800) USA-LEARN
Website: http://www.ed.gov

The Department of Education supports international education through a number of funding programs. Much of this funding is authorized by Title VI of the Higher Education Act and includes such programs as National Resource Centers in area studies or international issues, Foreign Language and Area Studies fellowships, and Centers for International Business Education. The Department also funds the Fulbright-Hays program, which underwrites the cost of faculty research and dissertation research abroad and group projects and seminars abroad for teachers and administrators.

In addition, through the Department of Education, the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education (FIPSE) supports innovative projects in higher education, including many in international studies and foreign languages, and encourages collaborative ventures between U.S. colleges and universities and institutions in Canada and Mexico.

NATIONAL LIBRARY OF EDUCATION (NLE)

Website: http://www.ed.gov/NLE

The National Library of Education (NLE) is the hub of a national network of libraries, archives, and other information providers in the field of education. It serves the department's staff and other federal employees, including the Executive Office of the President and the United States Congress, as well as the general public.

U.S. NETWORK FOR EDUCATION INFORMATION (USNEI)

Website: http://www.ed.gov/NLE/USNEI/HP0B1.html

USNEI is an interagency and public/private partnership that provides information and referrals for U.S. citizens and persons abroad interested in the U.S. and foreign education systems, international opportunities to study and teach, and related practical assistance. It is also the official U.S. national education information center.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL AND CULTURAL AFFAIRS

301 4th Street, SW
Washington, DC 20547
Phone: (202) 619-4355
Fax: (202) 619-6988
E-mail: inquiry@state.gov
Website: http://www.state.gov

The Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of U.S. Department of State fosters mutual understanding between the United States and other countries by supporting a variety of exchange programs, including the Fulbright Program for scholar, faculty, and student exchanges; the University Affiliations Program, which promotes partnerships between U.S. and foreign institutions of higher education; the Citizen Exchange Program; and the International Visitors Program, which introduces international leaders to the United States. The Bureau works with State offices overseas, known as U.S. Information Services*, to promote personal, professional, and institutional ties between private citizens and organizations in the United States and abroad.

** As this publication went to press in September 1999, the United States Information Agency was about to be integrated into the U.S. Department of State; therefore, contact information may change. Please consult the State Department website for up-to-date phone and fax numbers and e-mail address.*

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